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A MANUAL OF EDUCATIONAL
LEGISLATION

FOR THE GUIDANCE OF COMMITTEES ON
EDUCATION IN THE STATE LEGISLATURES

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A MANUAL OF EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION

Chapter I

PURPOSE AND SCOPE

This manual is printed primarily to present to educational committees of the State legislatures that convene in 1925 and 1926 the essentials of a program of educational legislation based upon the experiences of the various States during the past several decades.

A large amount of proposed educational legislation is presented at each legislative session. Some of it is desirable, but a large part is not. It is with difficulty that those unfamiliar with school administration can pass upon it and know what ought to be enacted into law and what discarded. It is hoped that this publication will be of assistance in determining action. Topics are discussed in the light of experience of the States with different systems and of the best ideas of authorities in school administration.

Each of the 48 States has its own distinct system of education. The Federal Government assumes no control over the public schools throughout the country except with reference to the special Federal appropriations for specific purposes, as the Smith-Hughes Act for assistance to vocational education and the Smith-Lever Act for assistance to agricultural extension education. Nevertheless, because of proximity and interchange of ideas, the State systems have many points of similarity. Conditions affecting the kinds of school systems do not differ fundamentally; therefore, each State profits by the experiences of others, and through the adoption of what proves good the States are tending toward systems more similar than in the past. We have, therefore, what may be designated as the "trend in school development" in the United States, an expression meaning the forward movement—generally toward similarity in systems and practices.

In enacting school laws legislatures may be guided in part by the experiences of other States. For instance, in one State some one recommends legislation to provide that the State prepare and print its own textbooks. Before final action is taken the experiences of California and Kansas may well be studied. Another proposes the adoption of the county unit of administration and support; a study of the experiences of States organized on that basis will be helpful.

ful. When it is evident that new or revised school laws are needed in any State, it is wise to follow the successful experiences of other States which have tried the proposed plans, if such may be found. If reasons are evident that would make this practice undesirable, or a plan is proposed which seems better than any yet tried, a review of the experiences of other States solving the same problems in other ways is still desirable.

In other words, school legislation should be passed in the light of what has been proved effective in other States and with the knowledge before one of what has been tried and discarded and of the reasons influencing success or failure.

This bulletin is a brief résumé of what has been found desirable and acceptable. It aims to show the trend in educational systems and legislation adopted after experience and study. It gives references to more complete information on the subjects discussed.

THE STATE AND THE SCHOOLS

Practice in the United States, as well as constitutional or statutory provisions, charges the several State legislatures with the responsibility of providing a system of schools for all the children of the State adequate to their needs and efficient in fulfilling the educational ideals of the people of the State. Education with us is admittedly a State responsibility. It follows, therefore, that it is the duty of the State legislature (1) to formulate a constructive policy for the education of all the children of the State; (2) to provide the administrative machinery for a school system adequate to carry out this policy; and (3) to make such changes from time to time as changing conditions and educational needs require.

It is well known that after-war conditions have brought about fundamental changes in ideals for a modern education system. Progressive States, therefore, are providing for such changes in administrative organization: in sources, amount, and distribution of funds: and in school and curriculum reorganization as the needs of modern life require. The program of adjustment of the school system to the growing needs and expectations of the people involves many problems which State legislatures must help solve. Among the most pressing of those which call for legislative action at this time are: (1) To secure more nearly equitable adjustment within the State of tax burdens and educational opportunities for all children. (2) To provide systems of school support which will enable the schools of the State more adequately to meet the expansion necessary in the provision of school facilities commensurate with the new ideals for school buildings, school organization, enriched curricula, and increased costs of instruction and general school ad-

ministration. (5) To provide such administrative systems as will insure professional administration and efficient and economical management of the schools. The State, as such, is responsible for providing an administrative system which makes possible an elementary and secondary education for all children in the State. (4) To set up certain minimum standards which all schools and school systems must meet and to provide for such sources of support as will enable all communities to maintain schools satisfying established standards.

A. STATE PROGRAM FOR EDUCATION

The legislative program for any State will differ from that in others because it must provide for particular and specific State needs and must be consistent with the existing administrative system and traditions and ideals of the people. There are, however, certain considerations and problems common to all States which will doubtless be the subject of consideration in formulating educational programs. In many States the first step should be to take an inventory or survey of the educational assets and liabilities of the State and, on the basis of this study, to formulate a program of educational legislation extending over a period of years. Such a program would include, among other things, some provision for the following:

1. A businesslike State system of school organization, administration, supervision, and support.
2. Establishment of an effective unit for the greatest efficiency in local school administration.
3. Readjustment of elementary and secondary education to include (a) education for health, (b) education for citizenship, (c) education for life occupation, and (d) education for leisure.
4. A liberal system of school support, including a plan which equalizes educational opportunities among all the people and at the same time provides an equitable distribution of tax burdens.
5. Provision for suitable school grounds and buildings.
6. Preparation of an adequate staff of teachers.
7. Provision for a modern system of certifying teachers based on a gradual increase in professional requirements.
8. Adequate provision for living salaries for these teachers; longer tenures and retirement pension.
9. A liberal plan under which to provide textbooks and equipment in the schools.
10. A program for adult education, including a plan to eradicate adult illiteracy and provide Americanization work when necessary. These provisions should be under the general administration and control of the State departments of education, working through local school systems.

TABLE 1.—*Illiteracy: Number and per cent of illiterates in population 10 years of age and over, by United States Census of 1920—Number unable to speak English*

States	All classes		Native white				Foreign-born white		Negro		White population 10 years and over unable to speak English
			Native percentage		Foreign or mixed percentage						
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	
Continental United States	4,931,906	6.0	1,100,875	2.3	132,607	0.8	1,763,740	12	1,842,161	22.9	1,416,948
Alabama	278,062	16.1	64,923	6.4	469	1.7	1,803	10.9	210,690	31.3	724
Arizona	39,131	15.3	1,454	1.2	1,779	4.6	19,291	27.5	338	4.6	30,352
Arkansas	121,837	9.4	40,753	4.6	658	2.0	1,145	8.3	79,245	21.8	697
California	95,592	3.3	5,359	4	3,388	5	60,760	10.5	1,570	4.7	69,570
Colorado	24,208	3.2	7,655	1.7	969	1.8	14,224	12.4	619	0.2	10,630
Connecticut	67,265	6.2	1,332	4	1,395	4	63,131	17.0	1,076	6.2	38,048
Delaware	10,508	5.0	2,295	2.0	132	6	3,373	17.3	4,700	19.1	2,733
District of Columbia	10,509	2.9	544	2	76	2	1,728	6.1	8,053	8.6	779
Florida	71,811	9.6	12,681	3.1	508	1.1	2,657	6.3	55,639	21.5	7,918
Georgia	328,628	15.3	66,337	5.5	239	1.1	861	5.4	261,115	29.1	298
Idaho	4,924	1.5	654	1.3	260	3	2,501	6.5	44	5.4	1,956
Illinois	173,967	3.4	24,437	1.1	4,470	4	131,996	11.0	10,476	6.7	121,963
Indiana	52,034	2.2	24,981	1.4	2,984	1.0	17,555	11.8	6,476	9.5	13,269
Iowa	20,680	1.1	5,921	1.5	2,354	4	11,904	4.9	1,263	8.1	9,459
Kansas	22,821	1.6	5,835	1.6	1,344	1.6	11,291	10.5	4,228	8.8	12,027
Kentucky	155,014	8.4	110,902	7.3	1,304	1.3	2,244	7.3	41,548	21.0	688
Louisiana	299,192	21.9	78,818	11.4	3,139	3.5	9,707	21.9	206,730	34.5	3,665
Maine	20,240	3.3	5,106	1.3	3,256	2.9	11,604	11.1	64	5.9	10,333
Maryland	64,434	5.2	13,584	2.0	1,484	0	13,575	13.4	35,404	18.2	7,765
Massachusetts	146,607	4.7	2,926	1.3	4,834	1.3	135,720	12.5	2,565	6.8	96,426
Michigan	89,048	3.0	7,360	1	6,592	7	70,533	9.9	2,203	4.2	68,103
Minnesota	34,487	1.8	1,988	1.4	3,967	5	26,242	8.4	241	3.1	28,311
Mississippi	229,734	17.2	21,861	3.6	361	2.3	1,037	13.3	205,813	29.3	455
Missouri	83,403	3.0	43,031	2.2	4,035	0	17,669	9.6	18,528	12.1	11,126
Montana	9,344	2.3	669	1.3	398	1.3	5,178	5.8	87	0.0	3,006
Nebraska	13,784	1.4	2,194	1.6	1,176	1.4	9,468	6.4	556	4.8	9,186
Nevada	2,902	5.9	119	4	38	2	1,241	8.5	16	5.1	1,506
New Hampshire	15,788	4.4	1,023	0.6	930	1.1	13,746	15.4	33	6.7	11,339
New Jersey	127,061	5.1	6,707	1.7	2,899	4	111,595	15.3	5,910	6.1	73,409
New Mexico	41,637	15.6	23,737	11.9	1,762	8.2	7,230	27.1	228	4.3	13,225
New York	423,022	5.1	16,150	0	12,256	5	389,003	14.2	5,032	2.9	280,200
North Carolina	241,603	13.1	104,673	8.2	171	1.9	474	0.8	133,674	24.8	100
North Dakota	9,937	2.1	335	1.3	972	0	7,238	5.6	16	4.0	10,190
Ohio	131,006	2.8	25,533	1.0	5,191	0	84,287	12.0	12,715	8.1	81,161
Oklahoma	56,864	3.5	20,413	2.4	1,006	1.2	5,436	14.0	14,205	12.4	6,032
Oregon	9,317	1.6	1,329	1.6	461	1.3	5,172	8.1	89	4.7	3,342
Pennsylvania	312,609	4.0	20,977	1.8	8,893	6	258,812	18.9	14,645	6.1	162,240
Rhode Island	31,312	6.5	964	0	1,561	0	28,157	16.8	839	10.2	21,620
South Carolina	220,667	18.1	38,639	6.6	1,033	1.0	301	6.2	181,422	29.3	116
South Dakota	8,100	1.7	667	1.3	830	0	3,848	4.7	35	5.2	4,861
Tennessee	182,620	10.3	101,317	7.4	492	1.3	1,263	8.3	79,532	22.4	506
Texas	295,844	8.3	50,424	2.2	30,210	9.4	112,417	33.5	102,033	17.8	172,037
Utah	6,264	1.9	335	1.3	300	1.3	3,504	6.3	59	4.6	2,303
Vermont	8,488	3.0	1,904	1.1	1,709	2.8	4,537	11.3	23	6.2	3,058
Virginia	193,139	11.2	70,081	6.1	394	1.0	2,150	7.1	122,322	23.5	1,135
Washington	18,526	1.7	1,628	1	751	3	11,630	4.7	245	4.0	7,796
West Virginia	69,413	6.4	43,573	4.8	751	1.3	14,548	24.0	10,513	15.3	11,131
Wisconsin	50,397	2.4	3,200	1.3	7,159	0	38,359	8.4	182	4.1	44,681
Wyoming	3,149	2.1	720	1.4	101	1.3	2,233	9.0	66	5.3	2,022

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Chapter II

GENERAL ANALYSIS OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

STATE EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

The State's program of education must have first a legal basis resting upon its constitution and the duly approved acts of its legislature. In certain instances this legislation charges the performance of certain educational duties directly to local civil governments or to special school units; usually, however, it is carried out through certain State officers. There is, as a rule, a State board of education and a State department of education. The board usually has general control over the State's educational program as determined in its constitution and laws. It acts only as a body. Its acts are legislative, the execution being the function of the State chief school officer and the State department of education over which he presides. In other words, the State department of education is the functioning body for the State board.

The new and enlarged conception of education is adding new importance to the chief educational officer in the several States—i. e., the State superintendent of public instruction or commissioner of education and the State department of education of which he is a part and the head. The office, as originally created in the older States, was chiefly clerical and statistical, much like the functions of the old county superintendency. Almost any person chosen from the general electorate could then fill the position to the satisfaction of the public. But the demands of to-day require a new type of educational leadership, able to administer the manifold problems of modern school organization and administration, general education, school sanitation, industrial and vocational education, interrelation of the public and higher schools, and educational legislation.

STATE BOARDS OF EDUCATION

Modern educational development is toward provision for a State board of education as the administrative head of the State's educational system. Forty-two States have such boards with functions relating to the common schools. Two States have no State boards.

¹For details, see U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bul., 1920, No. 46.

In several States boards have been organized since the passage of the Smith-Hughes vocational education act to administer the funds provided under this act. Their duties, like those of many ex officio boards, are nominal. In others the State boards of education administer only the higher educational institutions, as the university, agricultural college, and normal schools.

TABLE 2.—Composition of state boards of education¹

States	Ex-officio members					Appointed or elected members					Total ex-officio members	Total appointed or elected members	Total number on board
	Governor	Other State political officers	State superintendent of public instruction	President of State university	President of agricultural and rural and state vocational college	President of State normal school	Other education officials	Year in education work	Age in educational work	Appointed or elected by			
Alabama	1		1		2	3		6	Governor	12	2	6	8
Arizona	1		1		2	3		5	do	(2)	5	3	8
Arkansas			1					7	do	7	1	7	8
California								7	do	4	0	7	7
Colorado	2	1									3	0	3
Connecticut	1	1						9	Governor	6	2	9	11
Delaware								5	do	5	0	5	5
Florida	1	3	1					3	do		5	0	5
Georgia	1							4	Governor	4	2	1	6
Idaho								5	do	5	1	5	6
Indiana			1	1	1	3	3	2	1	do	4	7	13
Kansas			1	1	1	3	3	2	1	do	2	6	3
Kentucky	2										4	3	3
Louisiana								5	Governor	5	1	5	8
Maryland								7	do	7	0	7	7
Massachusetts			1					5	do	3	1	6	7
Michigan								3	Popular vote	6	1	3	4
Minnesota								5	Governor	5	0	5	5
Mississippi	2										3	0	3
Missouri	1	2	1					4	do	4	4	0	4
Montana	1	1						8	Governor	4	3	8	11
Nevada	1		1	1							3	0	3
New Hampshire	1							5	Governor	5	1	5	6
New Jersey								8	do	8	0	8	8
New Mexico	1		1					3	do	4	2	5	7
New York								12	State legislature	12	0	12	12
North Carolina	1	5	1								7	0	7
North Dakota	1	1	1					3	Governor	6	2	3	5
Oklahoma								4	do	6	1	6	7
Oregon	1	1	1								3	0	3
Pennsylvania			1					3	Governor	6	1	6	7
Rhode Island	1	1						6	State legislature	6	2	6	8
South Carolina	1		1					7	Governor	4	2	7	9
Tennessee								9	do	6	1	9	10
Texas	1	2									3	0	3
Utah			1	1	1			6	Governor	6	9	6	9
Vermont								5	do	5	0	5	5
Virginia	1	1	1				5		{State senate, 8. State board, 2. Governor	4	3	5	8
Washington			1	1	1	1	3		do	2	4	3	7
West Virginia							3		do	6	1	6	7
Wisconsin	1		1					8		(2)	5	2	8
Wyoming			1					6	State superintendent ²	6	1	6	7

¹ From U. S. Bur. of Educ. Bull., 1920, No. 46.² Indefinite.³ Governor appoints 5 members, university board of regents 1, normal school regents 1, vocational education board 1.⁴ Governor's appointees.⁵ With approval of governor.

Composition of State boards of education.—State boards of education are made up in the following ways: Ex officio membership,

composed of State officials, usually including the governor and chief State school officer, and of other members selected from among other State officials, as the attorney general, secretary of state, State treasurer; ex officio education officers, as presidents of higher institutions, including universities, colleges, and normal schools (in some cases the law provides that these boards include one representative who is a city superintendent, one who is a county superintendent, or similar regulation); membership confined to persons not engaged in educational work; members may or may not be engaged in educational work; and various combinations of the above. (See Table 2 for full information.)

Methods of appointment.—In 33 States there are State boards appointed or elected. In 28 of these the power of appointment is vested in the governor, subject in some cases to approval by the State senate. In 3 the State legislature makes the selections, in 1 State the board is elected by popular vote, and in 1 appointment is left to the State chief school officer. In the other States appointment is made in part by the governor, in part by certain educational boards, and in 1 State in part by the senate.

The tendency in the selection of members of State boards of education seems to be toward appointment by the governor. Two methods of selection, (1) appointment by the governor and (2) election by the people, receive the approval of authorities on school administration. The first method, appointment by the governor, has these merits: (1) It centralizes full responsibility for all the departments of public service, including the management of schools, in the executive head of the State. This tends to unity and economy in administration. (2) It is believed that this method protects the board from undue political influence. Selection is often restricted to an eligible list or limited in some other manner. The advisability of the governor being a member of the board he appoints is doubtful.

Election by the people is favored by many authorities on school administration because: (1) It centers responsibility definitely on a group of persons elected specifically for one purpose, namely, that of having general charge of schools. (2) It represents more nearly a direct expression by the people of their wishes in the management of school affairs than does appointment. (3) It follows our custom of making those intrusted with legislative functions directly responsible to the people. (Administrative authorities are generally agreed that the chief functions of a State board of education are legislative rather than executive.)

Size of board, term of office, mode of retiring members.—The present tendency is toward a State board of education composed of from five to nine members, each of whom holds office for a term of from five to seven years. The time of retirement is so arranged

that a majority of the board remains constant; that is, one member retires each year, or two or three each alternate year. The smallest boards, as now constituted, are those which are composed of ex officio members. The term of office of members of ex officio boards is fixed by law and ranges from two to four years. The members usually retire simultaneously. This may be regarded as representing a passing type. In 25 of the 42 States having State boards of education the number constituting a board ranges from 7 to 13 members. Boards of this size, with continuity of service provided, are generally considered as satisfactory in size for working efficiency. Neither too large nor too small a board is desirable.

Powers and duties of a well-organized State board of education.—According to authorities on school administration, the State board of education, like the city board, should be a lay board representing the larger educational policies of the public, delegating the professional side of education and the administration of its general policies to its appointed executive official, the State superintendent of public instruction or commissioner of education, and to the heads of the several higher educational institutions, if any, under its supervision. The board should be composed of from five to nine members appointed by the governor by and with the consent of the senate, the term of office to be five to seven years, one member to retire each year, or two in each biennial period, thus perpetuating the board's policies and giving it stability and a degree of permanency. Vacancies should be filled by the governor. The appointment should be for absolute worth and without regard to residence, occupation, party affiliation, or similar considerations. The members should serve without remuneration except for a reasonable per diem and actual traveling and other necessary expenses. The maximum number of days for which such per diem may be paid should be fixed by law.

The general powers of the State board should include the following, keeping in mind that *the State board is a legislative body, the State superintendent of public instruction or the commissioner of education acting as its executive officer:*

1. To know the educational needs of the State and to determine its educational policies so far as authority is conferred upon it to do so by the constitution or by acts of the legislature.
2. To have general oversight and control of the public-school system of the State² as may be determined by law, and of other schools in so far as charged by specific legislation.

² In some of the States the proposed State boards of education may be organized to have control of all the schools, including the higher institutions. This would particularly be true of States which see fit to enlarge the powers of the board now in control of higher education to include also the general oversight of the elementary and secondary schools.

3. To select the chief State school officer, who becomes its executive head; to determine his powers and duties; and the function of the State department of education under his direction.
4. To adopt the necessary regulations for education in the State relative to compulsory education, school buildings, school equipment, courses of study, qualifications of teachers, physical education, medical inspection of children, school records and reports, etc.
5. To have general control over all such educational institutions as the State schools for the deaf and blind, industrial reform schools for boys and girls, and educational work in State reformatories and penitentiaries, and State hospitals.
6. To have general control of or establish cooperative relations with all teacher-training institutions conducted by the State.
7. To act as a board of control for the State library and historical collections.

STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

The State departments of education have, as a rule, developed more or less independently, paralleling the several State boards of education, with functions centered in the administration of the elementary and secondary schools of the State. The executive head of this board—the State superintendent of public instruction or commissioner of education—was formerly a political official in nearly all the States. Greater efficiency in school administration now demands a change. The superintendent or commissioner is beginning to be recognized as the chief educational officer in the State, whose task it is to organize and direct the educational forces within the State. The office requires the largest ability. It is indeed hard to conceive of a more important office or a more difficult position to fill well. At all times it calls for tact, initiative, and executive ability.

THE CHIEF STATE SCHOOL OFFICER

The prevailing method of selecting the chief school officer or State superintendent is by popular vote. In six States these officers are appointed by the governor, in eight by the State board of education.¹ The last of these methods is in line with accepted principles of school administration and has the most to commend it.

The chief State school officer should be selected by the State board of education from the country at large because of professional preparation and administrative ability, and if possible because of success in other positions requiring similar ability and involving similar duties. Many able and efficient chief school officers have come

¹ See U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bul., 1920, No. 46.

² See Table 8.

into office by popular election or by gubernatorial appointment. Both methods have some advantages, but neither is as sure and reliable as appointment by a nonpartisan board. No other method of selection is rational, if this officer is to be responsible to the board. The term of office should have no reference to the change of officers connected with the partisan government of the State. It should be indefinite or for a period of years, long enough to make possible the consistent development of administrative policies.⁵

If the chief State school officer is selected by popular vote the office may become a political one, subject to the fluctuations of party and factional politics. The term is short, two to four years, reelection is uncertain, and the lack of continuity in the service is a handicap to the officer, however capable. The term and salary are fixed by law and can not be adjusted to fit the person desired. The field from which to choose is limited to the State, the qualifications sometimes limited to citizenship. Under the appointive method the chief State school officer may be selected as are presidents of universities, city superintendents, and other important school officials, from the country at large.

With the State organized for education on this basis, the position of chief school officer stands first in responsibility and in opportunity to render executive service. As executive official he administers the various divisions of the State department of education and also represents the State board as its professional representative with the higher educational institutions of the State. The State department of education should be comprehensively planned on lines of approved business principles. If the State is to get full returns on its educational investment, the methods, means, and ways outlined must be of the most approved known to experts in school administration. There should be ample provision made for as many subdivisions of the department as may be necessary to administer the office to the best interest of the public.⁶

There is general agreement by authorities on school administration, confirmed by practice in several progressive States, that this important office should be based on the following powers and duties:

1. The chief State school officer should be the executive official of the State board of education and executive head of the State department of education, and should enforce rules and regulations made in conformity to law by the State board for schools over which it has legal jurisdiction.

2. He has supervision of all the different divisions of the State department of education and should be held responsible by the State

⁵Summarized from U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bul., 1920, No. 40, which should be consulted for further information on this subject.

⁶See Table 4.

board for the proper administration of the duties of each such division.

3. In cooperation with the heads of the State's institutions for training teachers, and in conformity with law, he prescribes courses of study for these training schools, standards for the certification of teachers, and methods for the validation of teachers' credentials from other States.

4. As the professional representative of the State board of education, he cooperates with the presidents and faculties of the higher educational institutions of the State.⁷

ORGANIZATION FOR LOCAL MANAGEMENT⁸

As has been stated, each State as a whole is the legal unit in education, but for administrative purposes each State delegates certain responsibilities to smaller local units. The history of educational development in the country proves this to be a wise policy. There is not uniform practice in or agreement concerning the amount of control and management the State should attempt through its State department of education and the amount it should delegate to the local units. In the earliest days of the public school the States assumed that they were fulfilling their full duty when they passed legislation authorizing or requiring local units to establish schools to provide at least a minimum amount of education for their children. Later, step by step, they have found it advisable to take from these local units one function after another because they were not uniformly well carried out. This process is continuing. It is called the "centralization" of authority in the State. It has reached varying degrees of progress in various States; however, the balance of power between the State and local units still remains with the local units. While the local unit must maintain

⁷ The relationship between the State chief school officer and the State board of education, recommended above and found by experience satisfactory, is that now existing between the president of the State university and the board of trustees in the well-managed institutions or between the city school superintendent and the city board in the most progressive and advanced cities. The president, in one case, and the city superintendent, in the other, are the most responsible heads of the university and the city school system, respectively, receiving their authority from the boards they represent and replaceable by the boards if not measuring up to the requirements of the positions.

In both cases the boards determine general policies, authorize developments and activities, leaving the actual execution to their executive officers, the president or the superintendent, and giving to their executive officers much freedom for initiative. In both cases boards, when filling a vacancy in the presidency or in the superintendency, feel free to select the best person available from anywhere in the country or even outside the country. Indeed, the relationship is similar to that found in corporations. The general manager is selected by the board of directors. He becomes, when selected, the responsible head of the organization, removable for cause, but while holding office has authority to carry on the affairs of the corporation in accordance with the general instructions of the board of directors to the best of his ability.

An identical relationship should exist between the county superintendent of schools and the county board of education in States with the county unit organization.

⁸ See U. S. Bur. of Educ. Bulletins, 1914, No. 44, and 1922, No. 10.

schools, conforming to specifications of the State department of education, the real worth of the school it conducts is determined by local conditions, interests, and activities.

Four more or less distinct territorial units of organization for administering rural schools are found at the present time in the United States: The district, the New England town, the township, and the county. In addition, in practically all States, incorporated cities are independent school units. There are many instances of mixed systems in which the responsibility for the school rests partly on the district and partly on the township, or on the district and the county. These mixed systems come from the transition from the old district system to the more modern township or county system. In general, it may be said that the greatest administrative efficiency is found where the unit of administration conforms geographically to the unit for civil administration, the "town" in New England or the county where it is the unit of local government.

The small local district was the original pioneer organization, particularly in New England, and it extended westward and to the southwest. It was suited to pioneer times when a larger unit of organization was impossible. The town system originated in Massachusetts, replacing the Massachusetts district system, and soon spread throughout New England. The township school unit has been adopted by a few States, in which it is also the important unit in civil government. County organization originated in the South, largely because the county was the civil unit. It has spread westward and northward, replacing the district system in several States.

The district unit.—The term "district unit" is generally used to mean a small geographical area set apart for school purposes only and served by a single school. Occasionally, however, it contains two or more schools and in sparsely settled portions of the country is often an area larger than a township. In the old district unit the school, or schools, if there happened to be more than one, was under the full charge of a local board of trustees. This board had general charge of all school affairs, including the care of the school property, the choice of teachers, the fixing of salaries, and the establishment of the policy which governed the work of the school. The board was amenable to the annual school meeting, which elected its members, voted the taxation, and determined the length of the school year.

The district unit has been defended as being "democratic." However, it is generally conceded by authorities on school administration to be ineffective and is gradually disappearing in many sections of the United States. Where it is still left local boards must conduct the school in accordance with laws and regulations of the State department of education and subject to administration and supervision,

in many particulars, on the part of the county superintendent of schools. In pioneer days it was probably the only feasible plan, but with the passing of pioneer conditions and the development of modern industrial and agricultural life, a larger unit for school taxation is necessary and a larger and more centrally controlled system of organization seems desirable.

The town and township units.—The school unit known as the "town" system in New England includes under one taxation unit and one board of control all schools in a civil township. The system originated in Massachusetts during the middle of the last century and has become general throughout New England. The unit seems satisfactory in New England, where the town is also the unit in civil government. The town unit contains all schools in the township, whether located in the thickly settled section or in the rural sections.

New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Indiana, West Virginia, Ohio, and parts of Michigan, Iowa, and North Dakota are organized on the township-unit basis. In several of these States there is a strong movement to abandon the system in favor of a larger and more effective unit.

The county unit.—The county unit is the term applied to systems in which the schools in the county (city schools sometimes excepted) are organized as a single system under one board of education and supported largely by county funds. There are many types of county systems in operation. Real classification is not attempted, as organizations differ in many particulars among States called "county unit States." Ten States have centralized to the extent that the county board of education is the paramount board in the management of the schools. These 10 are Alabama, Florida, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, New Mexico, North Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, and Utah. In three of these—Florida, Louisiana, and Maryland—city schools as well as country schools are under the management of county boards. In the other States the incorporated cities are independent in most respects. Five other States have partly the county and partly the district system, or such a division of authority between district and county that they may be considered as in a state of transition from district to county system. These States are South Carolina, Mississippi, Georgia, Oregon, and Montana. In a number of other States—Arizona, Washington, and California, for example—the county is important in school support but not in administrative control.

AN EFFECTIVE COUNTY ORGANIZATION

Practice in good systems already established indicates that a county organization to be most effective should make provision for a well-centralized business and professional administration, without depriving the people in each section of local initiative in school matters. The county board and the county superintendent should administer the general school affairs and expend the county school funds to equalize educational advantages among all the children of the county. Each school community should have a representative appointed by the county board or, if desired, elected at an annual school meeting, to represent the school before the county board. Support should come principally from county funds. The school funds of the county should be expended by the county board of education for the general maintenance of all the schools. The local school community should usually be given the right to levy taxes and issue bonds for *extraordinary* school purposes, such as acquiring additional land sites or erecting new buildings. This gives a measure of local autonomy. This should be permitted only after a county-wide tax sufficient for all ordinary school purposes for the entire county has been levied and collected.

A good county system has an organization for the management and support of its schools similar to that of the best city systems. The county board of education is elected from the county at large in the same manner as the best city boards are elected. It should have practically the same powers and duties. It determines the general educational policies of the county. It familiarizes itself with the educational needs of the entire county and locates schools where needed. It employs the county superintendent of schools and authorizes the employment of assistants. The county superintendent is its executive officer in exactly the same way that the city superintendent is the executive officer of the city board of education. In selecting a superintendent the board should have authority to employ the best person obtainable regardless of whether he is or is not a citizen of the county or even of the State. The board should be free, within reasonable limitations, to pay whatever salary may be necessary to obtain the most efficient person. The county superintendency requires as much ability and professional experience as that of a city of the same population. It presents difficulties in size of territory, placement of teachers, organization of supervisory staff, school financing, location of buildings, and the like which are even greater than city superintendents must meet. The salary should be commensurate with the responsibility.

The size of the board determines somewhat its effectiveness. The tendency is toward a board of five members, though very good results are evidenced in States with boards of three members and others with boards of seven or nine. The members are elected from the county at large or from electoral districts, sometimes but not always on a nonpartisan ticket. The individuals on the board should be men and women of high standing and ability, interested in education, but not necessarily selected from those who have had actual school experience. They should serve without pay, except for the necessary expenses when attending board meetings. Their duties are strictly legislative, leaving all executive functions to the county superintendent. Among progressive States with modern county school systems the following are recognized as duties of the county board of education:

1. To enforce the laws relative to education and the rules and regulations of the State board of education within their respective counties.
2. To select the county superintendent and all necessary supervisors and office assistants; also to select one director for each school community within their jurisdiction, who shall be the custodian of local school property and represent local needs before the county boards.
3. To have direct charge of all county schools outside of incorporated city districts, including the closing of unnecessary schools, building new schools, consolidating schools, and conveying children to school, and organizing rural high schools.
4. To select all teachers needed in the county schools, on nomination of the county superintendent.
5. To levy a uniform school tax on all the taxable property of the county under legal limitations; and to expend the funds thus procured to equalize educational advantages among all the school children of the county.
6. To exercise all other powers and duties not enumerated above but which are prescribed by law.

Subdistrict trustees.—In nearly all States organized with the county as the unit for administrative purposes, subdistrict trustees, one to three for each school or school district, are appointed by the board or elected by the people to have general charge of the school plant, to perform certain duties assigned either by law or by the county board of education, and to act in an advisory capacity to the county board concerning school conditions in their districts. These subdistrict trustees act as local representatives of the people of the county, receive suggestions from the people, and make recommendations to the county board on the basis of these suggestions. In some States

they are intrusted with important duties, such as keeping the school building in repair, having charge of the care and supply of school equipment, assisting in enforcement of the compulsory education law, and taking the school census.

THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS*

The rapid changes in American life have thrust new responsibilities on the superintendent as well as on his teachers. He still retains the clerical and financial duties assigned when the office was established. New developments in educational ideals and new appreciation of the importance of the professional administration of schools, the growth of a scientific attitude toward education, and the application of the results of scientific experimentation to school organization and methods of instruction have revolutionized our ideas concerning the selection of and the responsibilities which should be ascribed to this officer. The county superintendency is now considered the strategic position in the reorganization and improvement of rural education. The office demands a person of ability and professional training and experience equal to that of other responsible educational positions. In 38 States county superintendents are the supervisory officers for the rural schools of the counties and have certain administrative responsibilities varying in degree in the different States. In New England the supervising officer is the town or union superintendent. One State has also "supervising agents." In New York the rural superintendents are called "district superintendents" and supervise a section of a county. In Nevada they are deputy State superintendents and supervise one or several counties. In Virginia they are division superintendents, and in many cases the division and the county are coterminous. In Delaware there are no county superintendents, but State officials assume duties formerly assigned to the county superintendents. The term of office of the rural superintendent is four years in 18 States, two years in 16, and varies in the others. In 25 of these States the county superintendents are elected by the people, usually in the same manner as other county officers; in others they are appointed by boards; in New Jersey and Virginia they are appointed by the State board or State chief school officer.

The system of electing county superintendents at the regular political election partakes of those weaknesses indicated in discussing the office of the State chief school officer. Cities no longer select their superintendents by popular vote. Experience has taught them that an executive officer for such a position should be carefully

* For complete information, see U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bul., 1922, No. 10.

selected by a responsible board in a manner similar to that in which boards of directors of business organizations select their executive officers. Although many competent superintendents are found under the elective system it is on the whole an unsatisfactory method of selecting school officials. Political affairs consume the time and influence the action of officers elected in this way; tenure is uncertain and short; the officer must be a resident of the county, even though a better candidate could be secured if selection were made from a larger territory.

The powers and duties of the county superintendent should be practically the same as those of the city superintendent of schools.

1. He is the executive officer of the county board of education and administers under its legislation the educational policies determined by it.

2. He is the chief educational officer of the county and is primarily responsible for the conduct of the schools as their professional leader.

3. It is his duty to make recommendations relative to the location of schools, the number of grades required, the type of building and equipment, etc.

4. He selects supervisors, principals, and teachers for the schools whose appointments are formally approved by the school board.

5. He supervises the teaching in all schools under the county board, either directly or through assistants.

6. He determines the course of study and the textbooks to be used, subject to State regulations and the approval of the county board.

7. He provides for teachers' meetings and for a system of in-service training and unifies and harmonizes through his school systems the work of the schools.

8. He sees that all records of educational activities are kept in proper form.

9. He has charge of health education, including health inspection, in conjunction with the county medical authorities.

10. He sees that the school census is taken and that the compulsory education laws are enforced.

CONSOLIDATED DISTRICTS AND CONSOLIDATED SCHOOLS*

There are approximately 180,000 one-teacher schools in the United States. The number is decreasing steadily. About 8,500 of them were closed in the biennium 1920-1922. They are growing into

* See U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bulletins, 1914, No. 30, and 1923, No. 41.

larger schools or are being consolidated into good grade and high schools. Recommended in nearly all the state-wide surveys, adopted as a sound policy in most of the county unit States, hastened by the general public desire for and the very rapid growth of secondary education, encouraged in many cases by some form of State aid, and urged in teacher-training institutions as one of the best solutions of the rural education problem, consolidation of schools is making some headway in all the States and is progressing very rapidly in several of them. There are now about 12,500 consolidated schools in the United States. In the 1921-22 school year, 1,628 consolidated schools were formed.

So far as legal method of establishment is concerned, consolidated schools may be divided roughly into eight classes. Most of them have been formed under detailed laws by which the patrons of the schools start the movement and vote upon it at a regular or special election. If a majority of the votes cast in *each* district, or better, a majority in *all* the districts or territory included, are in favor of the consolidation, it is effected. Each of the uniting districts gives up its district boundaries and school board and becomes part of the one large district.

The advantages of such a procedure are that it arouses the interest of an entire community; the consolidation is thoroughly talked over, and if the school is established it is fairly sure to be a strong one. Care should be taken in framing laws of this kind that the consolidated district will receive as much State and county money as the entire number of uniting districts would, that any indebtedness of any of the districts be equitably adjusted for the entire consolidation, and that the school property of all the districts be vested in the one.

A second kind of laws permits consolidation on petition to the county superintendent, the county board of education or commissioners, or the district boundary board—whatever authority has power to create or change districts—a public hearing being first granted by that authority. The patrons of the schools have a voice in the matter, but it is expressed in petition and hearing, not in an election. This method is simple and effective.

A third kind of law gives the county board of education the power to consolidate schools on its own initiative and at its own discretion. In the hands of an intelligent board that carefully studies the needs of the entire county, works out a definite program, and arranges each year for some careful progress, this kind of law is proving to be very good.

Similar to this, but of more limited application, are laws giving district boards power to consolidate schools within districts. Where districts are large and have many schools, these are being used to advantage.

A fifth kind of consolidation law is common in the town or township unit States. The town is given control of the schools and may fix their number and determine their location. The town meeting decides the question. This is the usual procedure in the New England States, in Michigan and Pennsylvania. It serves very well for the schools within the town, but it does not provide a way of establishing schools by natural communities rather than by town boundaries. So far as secondary education is concerned, the New England States and some others are furthering centralization by providing for State aid in payment of tuition and transportation for nonresident students, an excellent way of preventing dissipation of energy. Elasticity in centralizing elementary schools is generally considered a distinct step in advance.

The laws creating county secondary schools make up another class. Some of these provide for one or more county high schools, located in different sections of the county, independent in administration and support from the elementary schools, and maintained by a tax on the entire county. Many very strong schools have been built under their provisions. The dual system thereby set up sometimes occasions conflicts between the elementary schools and the high school of the county and makes close correlation of work between the two classes of schools rather difficult.

Union high schools are established under laws which permit a number of districts to retain their own elementary schools, while all join in maintaining one central high school. This kind of law, most common in the Western States, has been used as the basis for some very fine schools. With the spread of the junior high school plan, it will probably be less used as time goes on. If junior high school centers are established and the elementary schools limited to the six grades, there is not so strong a reason for the elementary districts maintaining their separate identities.

In some States independent, special, and consolidated school districts are created by special acts of legislatures. The procedure is generally unsatisfactory. It breaks into better organization of larger areas, creates a number of different school systems, and generally acts to interfere with equalized educational opportunity.

Among the important provisions of State laws relating to consolidation are the following:

1. Minimum limits of area served, enrollment, average daily attendance, and length of term below which a school or district may not be created, or if created may not continue its existence.

2. An effective, quick way of uniting schools or districts, preferably in response to local demand, retaining for the united institution the full amount of apportionments the separate units would receive, arranging for an equitable assumption of any indebtedness, and providing for the proper disposal of any unnecessary school property.

3. Authority for the planning and carrying out of programs of consolidation for large areas, providing equitable distribution of resources and school facilities, and avoiding omission of consideration to isolated or backward strips of territory.

4. Authorization of the junior high school with a view to centralizing the work of the upper grades when full consolidation is not feasible.

5. Restrictions on the establishment of senior high schools, adequate to insure strong schools, with tuition and transportation, or board and room, provided for those students who do not have easy access to such a school.

6. Permissive transportation of pupils at public expense to and from all schools.

TABLE 3.—*Chief state school officer and approximate number of assistants*

States	Title	Term in years	By whom selected	Salary	Number of specialists in department	Number of clerks in department
Alabama	Superintendent of public instruction.	4	People	\$5,000	20	15
Arizona	do	2	do	3,300	6	5
Arkansas	do	2	do	2,500	11	3
California	do	4	do	5,000	20	25
Colorado	do	2	do	3,000	5	5
Connecticut	Commissioner of education	(1)	State board of education	9,000	47	49
Delaware	do	1	do	5,000	6	2
District of Columbia	Superintendent of schools	4	People	3,600	15	2
Florida	Superintendent of public instruction.	do	do	4,500	11	2
Georgia	do	2	do	2,400	11	4
Idaho	Commissioner of education	(1)	State board of education	6,000	11	15
Illinois	Superintendent of public instruction.	4	People	7,500	17	15
Indiana	do	2	do	5,000	9	10
Iowa	do	4	do	4,000	13	10
Kansas	do	2	do	3,000	10	6
Kentucky	do	4	do	4,000	9	10
Louisiana	Superintendent of public education.	4	do	5,000	17	8

¹ Indefinite.

TABLE 3.—*Chief State school officer and approximate number of assistants*—Con.

State.	Title	Term in years	By whom selected	Salary	Number of specialists in department	Number of clerks in department
Maine	Superintendent of public schools	3	Governor	\$4,600	10	9
Maryland	Superintendent of schools	4	State board of education	8,000	10	6
Massachusetts	Commissioner of education	5	Governor	7,500	10	73
Michigan	Superintendent of public instruction	2	People	4,000	15	17
Minnesota	Commissioner of education	6	State board of education	5,000	21	20
Mississippi	Superintendent of public instruction	4	People	4,500	15	8
Missouri	Superintendent of public schools	4	do	3,000	14	6
Montana	Superintendent of public instruction	4	do	3,600	6	3
Nebraska	do	2	do	2,000	12	7
Nevada	do	4	do	3,000	5	4
New Hampshire	Commissioner of education	(1)	State board of education	5,000	11	8
New Jersey	do	5	Governor	10,000	22	14
New Mexico	Superintendent of public instruction	4	People	3,000	6	8
New York	Commissioner of education	(1)	State board of education	10,000	177	78
North Carolina	Superintendent of public instruction	4	People	4,000	23	8
North Dakota	do	2	do	3,000	7	3
Ohio	Director of education	4	Governor	4,000	21	6
Oklahoma	Superintendent of public instruction	4	People	2,500	10	5
Oregon	do	4	do	3,000	6	6
Pennsylvania	do	4	Governor	12,000	57	50
Rhode Island	Commissioner of education	1	State board of education	6,000	8	5
South Carolina	Superintendent of education	2	People	2,500	17	6
South Dakota	Superintendent of public instruction	2	do	2,400	11	6
Tennessee	Commissioner of education	2	Governor	3,600	11	5
Texas	Superintendent of public instruction	2	People	4,000	33	22
Utah	do	4	do	4,000	10	4
Vermont	Commissioner of education	(1)	State board of education	6,000	7	3
Virginia	Superintendent of public instruction	4	People	4,500	14	8
Washington	do	4	do	3,000	15	6
West Virginia	Superintendent of free schools	4	do	5,000	8	6
Wisconsin	Superintendent of public instruction	4	do	5,000	22	8
Wyoming	State superintendent of public instruction	4	People	3,000	7	3
	Commissioner of education	(1)	State board of education	3,000		

Indefinite.

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TABLE 4.—*Specialists (one or more) in State departments of education*

States	Deputy	Teacher-training										Negro education	Certification of teachers	Americanization and adult education	Health education or medical inspection	School buildings	Vocational education	Trade education	Agricultural education	Household economics	Libraries	Attendance	Evening schools		
		Secondary education	Elementary education	Rural education																					
Alabama	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Arizona	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Arkansas	X	X	X	X				X	X																
California	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Colorado	X	X	X	X				X	X																X
Connecticut		X	X	X	X			X	X																
Delaware	X	X	X	X				X	X																X
Florida		X	X	X	X			X	X																
Georgia		X	X	X	X			X	X																
Idaho	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Illinois		X	X	X	X			X	X																
Indiana	X	X	X	X				X	X																X
Iowa	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Kansas	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Kentucky	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Louisiana		X	X	X	X			X	X																
Maine	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Maryland		X	X	X	X			X	X																
Massachusetts	X	X	X	X				X	X																X
Michigan	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Minnesota	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Mississippi	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Missouri	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Montana	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Nebraska	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Nevada		X	X	X	X			X	X																
New Hampshire	X	X	X	X				X	X																
New Jersey		X	X	X	X			X	X																
New Mexico	X	X	X	X				X	X																
New York	X	X	X	X				X	X																X
North Carolina		X	X	X	X			X	X																
North Dakota	X	X	X	X				X	X																X
Ohio	X	X	X	X				X	X																X
Oklahoma	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Oregon	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Pennsylvania	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Rhode Island	X	X	X	X				X	X																
South Carolina		X	X	X	X			X	X																
South Dakota	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Tennessee		X	X	X	X			X	X																X
Texas	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Utah		X	X	X	X			X	X																
Vermont	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Virginia	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Washington	X	X	X	X				X	X																
West Virginia	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Wisconsin	X	X	X	X				X	X																
Wyoming	X	X	X	X				X	X																

Chapter III

SCHOOL COSTS AND SCHOOL SUPPORT

State legislatures will be interested in the experience of other States in meeting the mounting costs of public education and in acquiring information concerning plans worked out by some States as to sources of school funds, proportion of total costs supplied from the different sources, and improved methods of distribution from State sources in order to more nearly equalize educational opportunities of children and tax burdens of citizens concerned.

Increased costs considered.—Much has been said and written concerning the great increase in the costs of schools since 1914. It is recognized that while schools should be supported liberally, they should also be conducted economically. Before passing judgment on the necessity of school expenditures it is well to consider not only the amount of increase in school expenditures year by year, but to compare these expenditures with other factors conditioning this cost, particularly the different purchasing power of the dollar in the respective years considered. Recent information collected in the United States Bureau of Education,¹¹ comparing annual expenditures in the years 1913 and 1920, as compared with the purchasing power of the dollar in those years, and considering also the increase in average daily attendance during the period indicates that the United States spent relatively less on public schools in 1918 than in 1913, and less in 1920 than in 1913.¹²

TABLE 5.—*Total expenditures for public schools in the United States^a*

Year	Actual total expenditure (millions of dollars)	Index of cost of living ^b	Purchasing power of total expenditure ^c (millions of dollars)			
				A	B	C
1913	52	100	522			
1918	762	174	438			
1920	1,034	200	518			
	6					

^a For all costs except debt service.

^b The formula used in computing items in column C is, $C = A + \frac{B}{100}$

^c Index figures taken from Nat. Educ. Assoc. Research Bul., vol. 1, No. 2, p. 94.

¹¹ U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bulletins, 1922, No. 8 and No. 47.

¹² See Table 5.

It is evident in considering this subject that the decrease in the purchasing power of the dollar, the great increase in school enrollment and attendance, the need for a large school-building program because of the practical stagnation of building and improvement during the war period, the new demands that are being made on the school for enriched curriculums to supply better training for vocations, participation in social life, and general-life needs must all be considered in making comparisons of costs as between the two periods represented. It should be remembered, also, not only that we expect more of our schools than in the past, but that we expect better work, better trained teachers, more consideration to hygienic and sanitary conditions of buildings and the like, and that the materialization of all these ideals means vastly increased expenditure of money.

If we continue the study of school expenditures during the biennial period from 1920 to 1922, we find in the latter year a total expenditure of \$1,580,671.276, exclusive of debt service. The purchasing power of the dollar also increased somewhat during this period, the index of the cost of living having decreased from 200 in 1920 to 170 in 1922. The latest figures obtainable concerning cost of education in 1922 for the United States as a whole and for each State are given in Table 6. Table 7 shows cost per pupil based on average daily attendance in elementary schools and in secondary schools for seven States. These averages may be used as guides in estimating probable expenditures necessary for the coming school years. Many of the States have a low average cost because of the large number of poor country schools.

When a State provides all its children equal educational opportunities, we shall see the average cost for that State approaching the high average now maintained by its better cities. Allowing for the actual difference in the cost of maintaining urban and rural schools of equal grade, it is safe to say that the cost per child per day in any State should not be lower than the present average for that State, and the average for every State should be at least as high as the present average for the United States as a whole.

TABLE 6.—*Total expenditure per child in average attendance in 1922*

Continental United States	1885.76	
Alabama	29.53	
Arizona	138.38	
Arkansas	24.02	
California	158.45	
Colorado	113.64	
Connecticut	91.10	
Delaware		\$82.55
District of Columbia		98.22
Florida		54.07
Georgia		25.22
Idaho		101.94
Illinois		97.41
Indiana		127.25
Iowa		113.48
Kansas		101.00

¹ For costs in city schools, see Bu. of Educ. Statist. Circ. No. 1, Jan., 1923.

TABLE 6.—*Total expenditure per child in average attendance in 1922—Con.*

Kentucky	\$32.96	North Dakota	\$96.03
Louisiana	55.75	Ohio	121.12
Maine	65.01	Oklahoma	70.63
Maryland	74.43	Oregon	95.03
Massachusetts	99.08	Pennsylvania	75.57
Michigan	128.23	Rhode Island	83.98
Minnesota	116.99	South Carolina	27.66
Mississippi	24.17	South Dakota	121.81
Missouri	70.71	Tennessee	33.27
Montana	141.43	Texas	54.62
Nebraska	117.00	Utah	94.31
Nevada	143.49	Vermont	73.97
New Hampshire	84.15	Virginia	53.21
New Jersey	123.13	Washington	124.49
New Mexico	92.59	West Virginia	63.63
New York	120.77	Wisconsin	94.90
North Carolina	40.42	Wyoming	135.42

TABLE 7.—*Cost per pupil in average attendance in the elementary schools and in the secondary schools in seven States in 1922¹*

States	Elementary day schools and kindergartens	Secondary day schools
Arizona	\$96.91	\$285.39
California	110.19	317.14
Connecticut	169.28	111.08
Montana	114.93	194.05
New Jersey	102.80	190.25
Ohio	105.14	145.16
Oklahoma	85.62	144.47
Total	98.04	198.37

¹ For current expenses and for outlays.² Includes local normal and vocational schools.³ For current expenses only.

SOURCES OF SCHOOL FUNDS

School moneys are now provided by States, counties, cities, townships, and special school districts. In all States a portion of the total cost is borne by the State, the proportional amount varying greatly. (See Fig. 1.) However, the greater portion of the cost is borne by the local school units. In some States this local support is a county tax only; in others it is a county tax together with a special school-district tax. In other States there is only the local school-district tax.

State school funds are received from (1) permanent invested funds, (2) State taxes, (3) State appropriations, and (4) several miscellaneous sources, such as corporation tax, income tax, oil tax.

The permanent school funds are largely derived from the sale of school lands. School lands are public lands given to many of the States by acts of Congress for the benefit of public education. In a few cases, States set aside State lands for education also.

STATE TAXES AND APPROPRIATIONS

State school taxes are generally (1) a direct property tax; (2) a general mill tax levied on all taxable real and personal property; (3) a

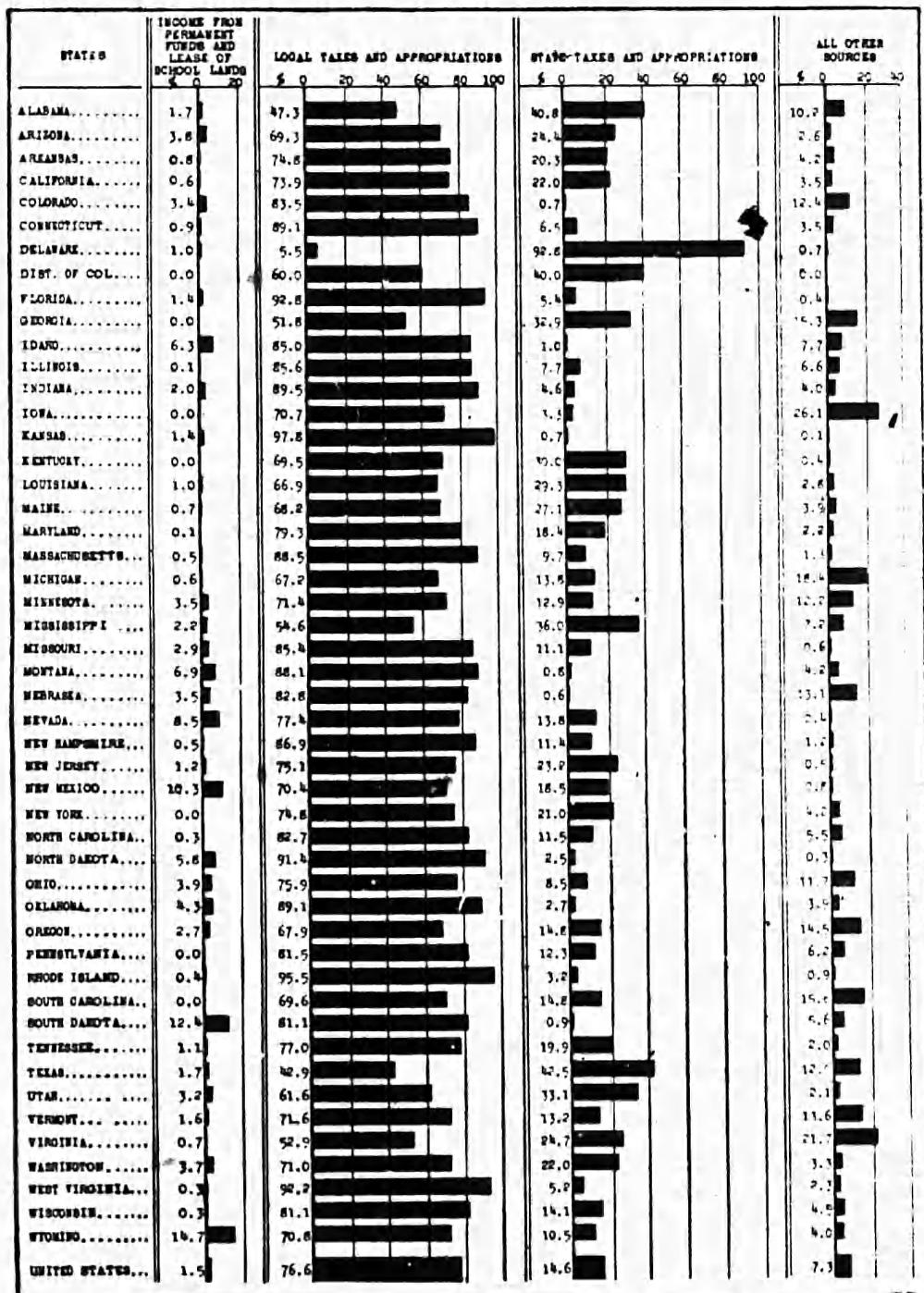


FIGURE 1.—Percentage distribution of total revenue receipts, by States, 1922.

a fixed portion of the State gross receipts; (4) all or a portion of the proceeds of special taxes, such as income taxes, inheritance taxes, taxes on stock and bonds, and poll taxes. State appropriations re-

sult, of course, from direct legislative enactment, as a rule either annually or biennially.

A study of school finances in the United States shows that the amount now provided from State appropriations is approximately 50 per cent greater than that resulting from State school taxes. State appropriations are more common at the present time than State school taxes. In 1920 every State in the Union made appropriations for schools, while only 29 levied State school taxes. State appropriations were made universal by the Federal vocational education act, commonly known as the Smith-Hughes bill, which required States to match the Federal aid dollar for dollar. It did not begin the policy of State appropriations but did make it general.

Of the 29 States which provided for the schools, in 1920, through a State school tax, 20 levied a mill tax, the rate varying from 0.7 in Wisconsin to 4.6 in Utah.¹³ Five States did not specify the rate in mills, but provided for a mill tax sufficient to meet certain obligations, such as to produce a certain total sum or a fixed amount per child in school. Seven States provided a mill property tax for special school projects, such as vocational education, teacher-training schools, physical training, etc.

Poll taxes for State school funds are collected in nine States, the range being from \$1.43 in North Carolina to 50 cents in Indiana. Corporation taxes for school purposes are levied in six States. Income taxes for school purposes are levied in two States. Inheritance taxes are credited to the school funds in five States.

LOCAL TAXATION

With the exception of New England and a few other States, where the civil government and the school government are on the township unit basis, the county is considered a logical unit of support for all schools outside of independent cities. If supplemented by funds from the State, equal educational opportunities are made possible throughout the State. Local school communities should be allowed to supplement the county tax in order to more fully realize local ideals, in addition to a county tax sufficient to maintain schools fulfilling minimum required standards set by the State in every section where a school is needed. The county tax should be levied and assessed on all property in the county, independent city school districts included, and then divided between the county system and the independent districts on some equitable basis. This is in recognition of the fact that the city wealth is due in large measure to the productivity of the county in which it is located and the city popu-

¹³ U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bul., 1922, No. 6.

lation recruited from near-by country districts. It should therefore bear part of the burden of the schools of the county.

These are the two principal reasons for State participation in school support. In every State, at the present time, great injustice is done children because of the lack of educational opportunities. Because of the location of natural resources and other reasons, wealth is unevenly distributed. Certain sections can maintain schools with a very low tax rate because of their accumulated taxable property, while other sections, with an exceedingly high tax rate, can not support schools worthy of the name. A few illustrations will make this clear.

TABLE 8.—*Comparison of the financial ability and school burdens of certain selected counties in Colorado, 1917-18*

Counties	General county valuation of county in mills per school child 6 21 high- school tax in- cluded)	Per cent of total school support received from			
		State	County	District	
Baca	\$1,822	2.00	12	27	61
Washington	3,516	1.25	14	9	87
Larimer	4,450	1.10	8	19	73
Alamosa	5,057	1.00	6	15	79
Hypothetical median		1.00	7.3	17	76.2
Pitkin	5,615	1.50	5	19	76
El Paso	6,003	1.74	5	27	68
Eagle	7,291	1.60	6	12	82
Cheyenne	9,512	1.66	4	17	79
Park	22,674	80	3	31	66

¹U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bul., 1917, No. 5, p. 37, Table 15.

TABLE 9.—*Comparison of financial ability,¹ effort,² and State aid of seven one-teacher rural school districts in town of Andover, N. Y.³*

District No.	Enroll- ment	As- sessed valu- ation per child en- rolled ⁴	Total assessed valu- ation	TAX rate	Cost per child en- rolled	Total ex- pended	Total State aid	State aid per child en- rolled ⁴
9.	13	\$5,555	\$72,209	\$0.00387	\$35.00	\$454.95	\$125	\$0.61
7.	13	4,901	63,718	.00517	38.04	495.51	125	9.61
6.	22	4,211	92,640	.00328	19.41	428.11	135	6.13
5.	11	2,620	28,820	.00867	41.03	451.37	185	16.81
2.	17	1,787	30,386	.00987	28.39	482.65	185	10.93
3.	27	1,750	47,245	.00618	15.88	428.84	150	5.55
4.	21	1,476	31,000	.00750	20.89	438.79	185	8.40

¹I. e., assessed valuation, not as accurate as measure of ability as true valuation.

²I. e., tax rate and expenditure.

³Table taken from an unpublished study by Richard A. Graves, graduate student in education, Univ. of Minn., based upon N. Y. Educ. Dept. Rep., 1917, vol. 2, pp. 681-684.

⁴Computed.

Table 9, column 3, shows that the assessed valuation per child enrolled (one measure of ability to support schools) varies in one township in New York from \$1,476 to \$5,555. Table 8 shows how

10 counties in Colorado vary in ability to support schools. The average per child valuation of these counties varies from \$1,822 in the poorest county to \$22,674 in the richest one. Figures showing similar variations in ability to support schools as measured by tax valuations have been collected from many States. A similar difference can be shown in any State organized on the district plan. This wide difference in ability to support schools that exists among districts can be overcome within the county by a generous county-wide tax distributed among schools according to their needs; that among counties by a state-wide tax, provided that distribution is on an equitable basis.

DISTRIBUTION OF STATE SCHOOL FUNDS

The source from which State school funds should come and the proportion which the State should contribute toward the maintenance of its schools, while important questions, are of no greater importance in the welfare of the State system than is the method used for distributing school funds among local units. Distribution on the school population basis is the oldest and still the prevailing method. It was based on the belief that it was the fairest possible method and would assist in equalizing educational opportunities within the State. Under earlier conditions in our history this was true. Changes brought about with general development, concentration of wealth and population, centralization of natural resources, and other influences have resulted in changing conditions to the extent that this method of distribution is no longer an equitable one. This fact has been recognized for a number of years, and several States have adopted other methods of distribution which apparently are more effective, particularly more effective from the point of view of providing that educational facilities of a given standard shall be available in all parts of the same State. Among the methods in use are distribution on the school enrollment basis, on the average daily attendance or aggregate attendance basis, and on the number of teachers employed. Each of these methods has some virtues as well as some weaknesses. Some States find a combination of two or more of them advantageous. In a number of States a still newer method of distribution has been inaugurated within the past few years, namely, that of distributing State money in amounts in inverse ratio to the tax valuation of the unit to which it is distributed. It is advisable that any State considering changing its system of support, particularly its method of distributing State funds, should make a careful study of the situation within the State in order that the method of distribution adopted may be

an equalizing one, combining the best elements of the methods referred to in this bulletin. The methods of distributing funds recently adopted in four States—Massachusetts, North Carolina, California, and Minnesota—are given below. These are not offered as models for other States to follow, but as suggestions of ways in which a large number of States are now trying to work out scientific methods of distributing State moneys for school purposes.

Methods of distribution in four States.—State legislatures have generally prescribed methods of distributing State funds in the acts making appropriations or levying the State taxes for schools. The present tendency is to use a larger proportion of State aid as an equalization fund. After a local unit has reached the limit of local taxation and is still unable to maintain schools up to the standard, the State comes to the rescue and provides the additional money needed. Methods of distributing State funds for this purpose in several States may be indicated here.

The Legislature of North Carolina in 1921 provided for largely increased State aid to public schools in an annual appropriation of \$1,400,000, to be known as the "State public school fund," stipulating that the State board of education should annually apportion from this fund an amount sufficient with county funds, to maintain schools for six months. However, no county is compelled to levy a school tax exceeding 30 cents on the \$100. Where such county levy, with State funds, is insufficient to maintain the schools six months, the county shall receive from the State fund an amount sufficient to make up the deficit. Of course any local unit may extend the term to any desired length beyond six months by drawing upon its own resources.

In 1921 the Legislature of Minnesota passed an act which provided for an equalization fund referred to in the act as supplemental aid. This act provided that to any school district whose school maintenance tax lies between 20 and 32 mills the State shall pay as supplemental aid one-third of the excess above 20 mills. If the tax levy for maintenance exceeds 32 mills, then, in addition to the above amount, the State shall pay one-half of such excess above 32 mills. In school districts maintaining only ungraded elementary schools, if a 20-mill tax does not raise the equivalent of \$600 for each teacher employed at least seven months, then the State board of education may grant to such school district an amount which, together with the proceeds of a 20-mill tax, will provide \$600 for each teacher employed. The Minnesota Legislature of 1923 passed an act providing that supplemental aid shall be limited to school districts whose local maintenance levy exceeds 20 mills. When a local school tax of 20 mills fails to yield the equivalent of \$40 per pupil in attendance 40 days, the State pays the difference between

the sum per pupil produced by the 20-mill tax and \$40 per pupil. The effect of this act is to establish the fund for supplemental aid as an equalization fund.

California makes the teacher the chief basis for distributing the major portion of State aid. By a law passed in 1921 the State provides \$30 for every elementary and every high-school pupil in average daily attendance. California maintains two distinct funds—the State school fund for elementary schools and the State high-school fund for secondary schools. By a law passed in 1921 the State elementary-school fund is apportioned as follows: \$700 is paid for every elementary teacher and the remainder of the fund is apportioned on the basis of average daily attendance. This money must be matched by the county, with the result that there is guaranteed for each full-time elementary teaching position \$1,400 a year. In 1921 California not only doubled the amount of State aid to be provided by the State per pupil, but adopted an entirely new method of apportioning her State high-school fund. The method provided by the law of 1921 recognizes three bases: (1) Flat quotas; (2) quotas for attendance in evening high schools, in special day and evening classes, and in part-time schools; (3) average attendance. A certain flat sum goes to every day high school, whether a four-year, a junior, or a senior high school, on the basis of the number of years of work it offers. In addition to this flat appropriation, each high school receives grants for units of average daily attendance, the amount per unit decreasing as the number of units increases.

Massachusetts limits the income of her permanent school fund¹⁴ to towns whose valuation is less than \$2,500,000. The quota granted to any town is determined by two factors: (1) The town's total valuation; (2) the excess of its expenditure for certain public-school costs over its quota from the general school fund, measured or equated in terms of tax rate. In distributing this fund, towns are divided into three classes on the basis of valuation limits, as follows: Towns having a valuation of (1) less than \$500,000; (2) from \$500,000 to \$1,000,000; and, (3) from \$1,000,000 to \$2,500,000. The aid is distributed in a manner designed to give the larger quotas to the towns of lower valuations and to the towns expending most in proportion to their ability.

The general school fund,¹⁵ derived from the proceeds of the State income tax, is distributed among all the towns and cities of the State in the form of reimbursements for teachers' salaries. The quotas of the fund are paid out in two installments, from the first of which are paid what for convenience may be called the ordinary reimburse-

¹⁴ The Massachusetts permanent school fund is \$5,000,000, the income exceeding \$200,000.

¹⁵ The Massachusetts general school fund is approximately \$4,000,000 a year.

ments; from the second installment are paid what may be called supplementary reimbursements. Ordinary reimbursements are paid in the form of definite quotas for each teacher or other school officer employed. In the distribution of ordinary reimbursements no recognition is given to the valuation or to the local tax rate of the receiving unit. The amount is determined solely upon the basis of whether the school officer was employed for full time or part time, his professional training, years of experience, and salary received from the town or city. On the other hand, supplementary reimbursements are paid on the basis of the community's assessed valuation per pupil.

A study of the legislation passed by Massachusetts, 1919-1922, will show that this State is committed to the following principles: (1) State aid should be given in the form of reimbursements for money previously expended; (2) the amount of State aid granted shall be determined by (a) the community's ability to help itself as indicated by its assessed valuation, (b) the community's effort as indicated by its local tax rate, and (c) the quality of educational opportunity the community seeks to furnish as indicated by the number and preparation of teachers and the character of the educational facilities provided.

The last three examples are quoted from Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1923, No. 47, to which reference is made for a further discussion of State policies in public-school finance.

Chapter IV

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE AND COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE LAWS

The necessity for compulsory education laws and the size of the problem involved in enforcing them are indicated by the number of children of school age not attending school at all and by the figures setting forth average daily attendance shown in the accompanying table,¹⁶ giving data for the various States. In this table the school age is considered as 5 to 18 years. The difference between the census enumeration and the total number of children in public and private schools is approximately the number of children 5 to 17 years, inclusive, not in school. For the entire United States this is 3,806,937. Of this number many are over 16, and others over 14 have finished the elementary grades. On the other hand, of those in school approximately 1 per cent are 18 years of age or over.

Irregular daily attendance is another reason for compulsory attendance laws. An idea of the amount of irregular attendance may be gained from a study of Table 10 and figure 2, showing the average daily attendance in the various States in 1922. For the United States as a whole all schools were in session an average of 164 days. The average pupil attended only 130 days, or 79 per cent of the time. This loss to the pupil of approximately one day in five on which school was open is a serious loss to the individual himself, as well as to the entire school and the community.

TABLE 10.—*School census, enrollment and attendance, 1921-22*

States	Population 5 to 17, inclusive, U. S. Census	Public-school enrollment	Estimated number in private schools	Days schools were in session	Average days attended	Rank in days schools were in session	Rank in days attended by each pupil enrolled
Alabama	702,515	502,610	21,023	130.8	95.8	46	45
Arizona	96,435	66,290	2,185	170.0	131.0	23	31
Arkansas	581,630	509,351	2,122	130.4	94.1	47	47
California	734,993	838,723	41,666	179.0	126.1	11	33
Colorado	243,387	240,772	3,830	174.1	123.2	17	34
Connecticut	343,500	283,750	57,437	184.3	152.1	5	6
Delaware	53,177	39,142	4,278	180.2	137.5	8	24
District of Columbia	80,500	69,541	11,844	178.0	149.1	13	12
Florida	287,239	237,770	7,008	135.7	103.1	45	41
Georgia	959,099	730,873	13,400	140.0	102.6	41	42

¹⁶ Table 10.

TABLE 10.—School census, enrollment and attendance, 1921-22.—Continued

States	Population 6 to 17, inclusive, U. S. Census	Public school enrollment	Estimated number in private schools	Days schools were in session	Aver- age days attended	Rank in days schools were in session	Rank in days attended by pupil enrolled
Idaho	130,741	119,164	1,727	160.0	132.9	26	29
Illinois	1,610,422	1,249,208	195,552	180.1	133.0	7	5
Indiana	722,399	591,600	26,425	163.7	137.8	31	23
Iowa	601,385	543,130	34,796	175.7	143.5	12	13
Kansas	467,136	415,082	28,187	166.0	135.1	31	23
Kentucky	709,985	581,313	15,460	125.0	92.3	48	38
Louisiana	567,519	470,321	41,180	138.6	112.1	37	33
Maine	181,138	147,170	14,184	174.0	120.3	18	8
Maryland	366,823	291,328	27,158	181.3	143.3	46	17
Massachusetts	906,965	698,268	139,154	180.0	149.2	3	11
Michigan	918,367	707,645	107,134	194.1	155.6	2	3.2
Minnesota	629,337	531,030	46,735	169.6	142.5	24	18
Mississippi	592,691	500,883	8,750	136.8	94.8	43	46
Missouri	839,387	736,522	54,763	167.7	132.0	29	30
Montana	151,571	120,929	3,652	171.0	139.0	22	22
Nebraska	349,822	320,128	21,951	171.0	140.1	20	21
Nevada	17,930	14,406	—	169.3	137.1	25	25
New Hampshire	100,866	67,304	31,807	171.0	147.3	19	13
New Jersey	808,353	628,659	41,573	188.7	136.0	3	2
New Mexico	111,306	80,929	4,267	170.5	117.5	21	35
New York	2,436,380	1,823,314	121,461	185.0	154.1	4	4
North Carolina	872,279	753,678	23,442	139.0	100.7	42	43
North Dakota	205,180	173,288	3,569	147.2	135.5	38	26
Ohio	1,841,136	1,120,293	88,315	171.4	149.8	16	10
Oklahoma	160,206	637,260	2,020	160.0	108.3	35	40
Oregon	187,820	104,460	12,209	168.6	147.0	27	31
Pennsylvania	2,339,198	1,709,677	125,392	179.3	151.9	10	7
Rhode Island	147,502	101,643	25,823	194.6	162.7	1	1
South Carolina	586,426	479,309	31,100	150.5	79.8	49	49
South Dakota	181,186	117,483	4,146	168.1	136.3	28	27
Tennessee	721,273	642,106	23,202	140.6	99.8	40	41
Texas	1,460,179	1,106,512	18,360	136.5	112.4	44	36
Utah	141,344	123,427	2,587	164.3	140.5	33	19
Vermont	84,526	63,439	7,058	161.9	145.1	32	15
Virginia	705,685	540,035	12,529	150.1	116.1	36	33
Washington	324,512	301,800	17,458	177.8	140.3	14	20
West Virginia	454,547	363,391	8,178	145.1	115.2	39	37
Wisconsin	633,304	500,937	103,809	177.7	150.1	15	9
Wyoming	51,331	47,988	4,183	167.2	130.4	30	32
United States	28,727,201	23,239,591	1,580,873	164.0	130.6		

Estimated.

For 1922.

All States now have laws dealing with the problems of attendance at school and providing for periods of compulsory attendance on the part of children between certain designated ages. Compulsory attendance laws must, of course, include or be accompanied by adequate provisions for their enforcement. This responsibility is intrusted to State authorities, to county, and to local authorities in different States. Sometimes they are civil officials, and sometimes educational officials are intrusted with the enforcement. Table 11 shows the compulsory age limits in years established by law in the 48 States, as well as legal school age or school population.

A school census should be taken annually.—Before compulsory education laws can be enforced, it is necessary to know the number

of children, their ages, and residences. This requires a school census at regular intervals, preferably of one year but not more than two years in length. This school census determines the school population, i. e., the children between the ages for which the public

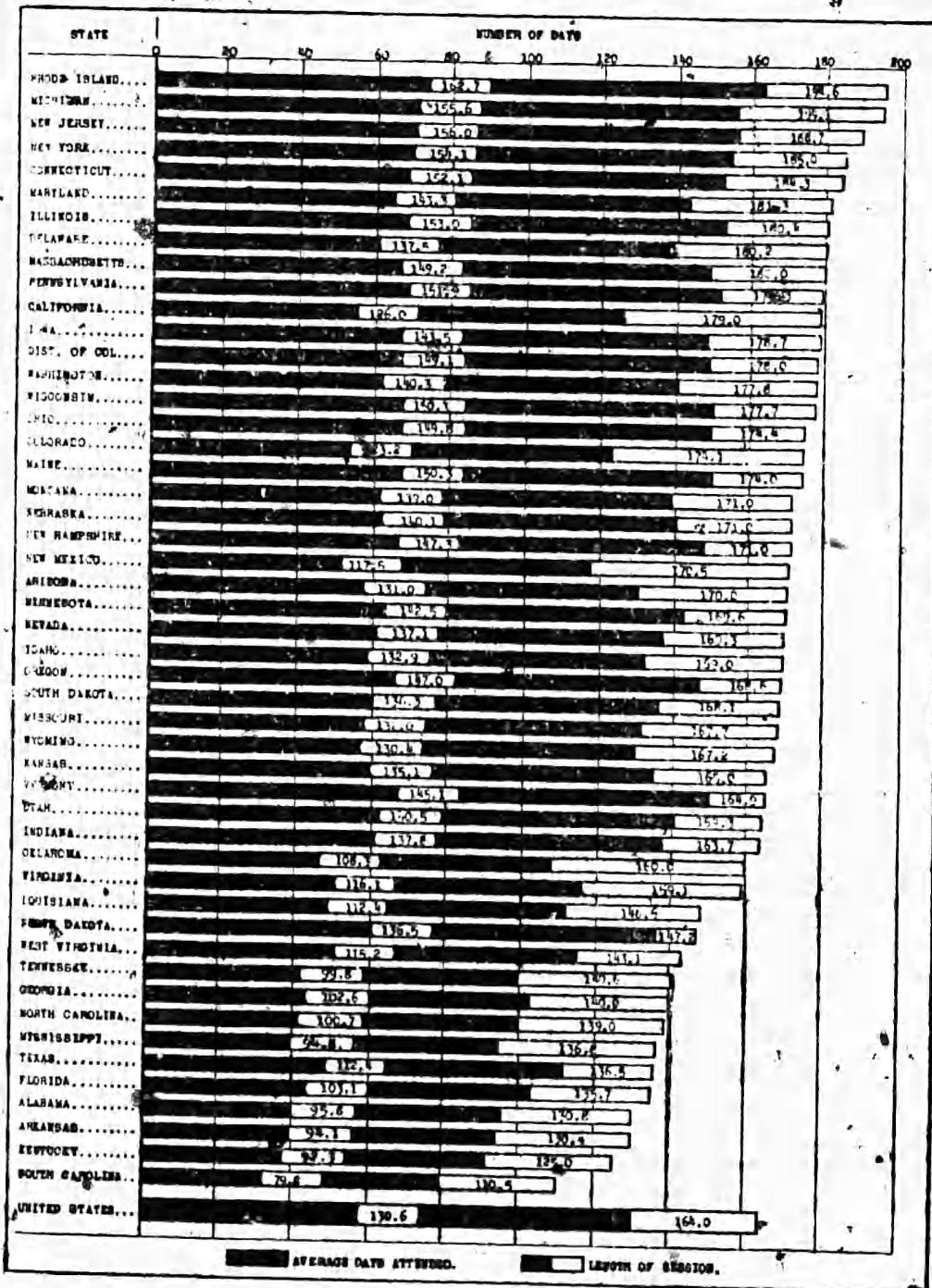


FIGURE 2.—Length of session and average days attended, 1921-22

schools are legally open to attendance, and the census shows also the number included in age groups affected by compulsory attendance laws. There is considerable variance in the legal school ages in the several States. The widest range of ages is from 4 to 20

years (Wisconsin and Oregon), and 5 to 21 years in 6 States (Maine, Iowa, Nebraska, New Mexico, Washington, and Mississippi). The narrowest range is from 5 to 16 years (New Hampshire and Massachusetts). In 17 of the 43 States where a census enumeration is made, the range of ages is from 6 to 21 years. No school census is taken in New Jersey, Delaware, South Carolina, and California. A grouping of the range of ages, with the number of States in each group, is given in Table 11.

TABLE 11.—*Ages for free attendance and ages for compulsory attendance*
AGES FOR FREE SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

Ages	Number of States	Ages	Number of States
7 to 20	1	5 to 18	2
7 to 21	1	5 to 16	2
7 to 17	1	6 to 18	5
4 to 16	1	5 to 21	7
6 to 16	2	6 to 21	16
5 to 20	2		
4 to 20	2	Total	44
6 to 20	2		

AGE LIMITS FOR COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE

Ages	Number of States	Ages	Number of States
7 to 18	1	8 to 14	4
6 to 18	1	7 to 14	9
6 to 18	1	8 to 16	11
8 to 15	1	7 to 16	14
8 to 17	1		
8 to 18	2	Total	48
7 to 15	3		

Compulsory attendance period.—The time during which children are compelled to attend school in any one year varies among States. In some States 16 weeks' attendance, not always continuous, satisfies the law. In others attendance is compulsory for the full-term school is open and until the completion of the eight elementary school grades. Frequently the upper age limit is set by law, with the provision "or until the completion of the elementary school grades."

There is general agreement among students of this subject that the most satisfactory laws are those which are enforced by State and county authorities rather than local district authorities, except in cities; that laws should require continuous attendance during the full school year; and that they should require the completion of the elementary schools regardless of age. There is a tendency to require full-time attendance on the part of all children until they have passed their sixteenth year and part-time attendance until they have passed their eighteenth year. Table 12 summarizes important provisions of compulsory attendance laws in force January 1, 1924.

TABLE 12.—*Some important provisions of compulsory attendance laws and number of States in which each is effective*

AGES FOR LABOR PERMITS

Ages	Number of States	Ages	Number of States
12 to 14	1	15 to 16	8
14 to 14½	1	16 to 18	3
14 to 16	35		3
14 to 17	1	Total	45
14 to 18	1		

MINIMUM ANNUAL ATTENDANCE REQUIRED

Term	Number of States	Term	Number of States
Full term	35	120 days	4
Three-fourth term	1	100 days	8
Two-thirds term	1	80 days	2
170 days	1	Total	149
160 days	1		
140 days	1		

EDUCATION NECESSARY TO EXEMPT FROM COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE

Grades	Number of States
Elementary grades	30
High school	4
None	14
Total	48

MINIMUM SCHOOL TERM

Term	Number of States	Term	Number of States
3 months	3	8 months	11
4 months	3	8½ months	1
5 months	1	9 months	6
6 months	9	9½ months	1
7 months	8	Total	45
7½ months	2		

* Includes District of Columbia.

Chapter V

PHYSICAL EDUCATION¹⁷

For centuries educational sages have called attention to the need for adequate concern for the physical well-being of the child in connection with attempts at directing his mental and moral unfolding. These suggestions have, however, met with scant response, save a mere nod of approval. War, the destroyer of life and health, has had much more influence in bringing about efforts at physical improvement, and the latest and greatest of wars had the strongest influence in promoting actual effort along these lines, though how far this impetus will carry us toward making physical education a fundamental part of all education remains to be seen.

There is much confusion in the interpretation of the term "physical education." To many it means some form of supervised muscular exercise; to others, instruction in hygiene; to others it may mean the physical examination and the removal or improvement of physical defects, the supervision of nutrition and of other hygienic conditions. Many will understand the term as including the use of all means for physical betterment, beginning early with the child, with the most fundamental conditions for health: his feeding, sleeping, airing, clothing; and opportunity for exercise, establishing the desire for health and affording knowledge of how to maintain it, and finally preparing him for appreciation of and participation in efforts for public health.

If we are confused as to the meaning of physical education, we are hardly alive to the relationship which it bears to all education. There is no mental activity without physical activity, and the character and persistence of that mental activity depend on the physical condition of the organism. It follows, then, that not only for purposes of natural defense and for humanitarian ends, but also for economy in school work, the human machine with which we deal in the classroom should be put and kept in its best working order.

Much legislation has gone forward for physical education in the past few years, and 32 States now have adopted physical-education laws. These laws differ widely as to their content and provision for enforcement and illustrate the various interpretations of the subject to which we have already called attention.

¹⁷ See U. S. Bureau of Education bulletins on physical education and medical inspection, particularly its health education series.

OBJECT AND SCOPE

The object of a State law for physical education should be to surround the child in the school with such sanitary conditions as will be for his welfare, to arrange the material and method of the general curriculum to this end, and to introduce into the educational program such positive work for the health and physical unfolding of the child as is consistent with the limitations of school activity. It is evident that conditions in the home life of the child can not be directly modified, though indirectly the work of the school may influence those conditions to a considerable degree. The school can never do its best for the child if it conducts its affairs as though isolated from the home, and this is particularly true in its efforts for physical education.

Scope.—(1) The school plant should be built and managed so that the school environment shall not be detrimental to the physical welfare of the child. This should include the provision of adequate playground space.

(2) The school program should be arranged so that in content and presentation it shall be healthful, and the health of the teacher should receive the attention it deserves.

(3) The examination of the preschool child: Though the child is not a subject for physical education in the school until he has reached the age for entrance, the school should be interested in his physical well-being before this time, and it has become the policy of some schools to make a physical examination of children before entrance and to suggest such treatment of local defects or of general health as will place the child in better condition for school work at the time of his entrance.

(4) Physical examination of school children: The examination of the school child on entrance and periodically thereafter to discover and secure the removal of his physical defects is fundamental to the work of physical education and also for school economy. Adequate means and methods of securing the best results from such examination should be arranged.

(5) The prevention of communicable diseases by the daily inspection of children should be provided.

(6) Health education should be carried out in a practical way by the insistence, first, on cleanliness of person, and following this by interesting the child in the formation of the few other habits which are essential for health.

In the higher grades this work should be continued by practical teaching in physiology and the principles of personal and home hygiene and by developing an appreciation of work for public health.

(7) Physical training for all pupils should be arranged for. Not only should there be ample recess periods, but additional time should be appropriated during the school period or after school hours for supervised exercise of such a nature as is best fitted to the physical capacities of the children at different ages. Adequate supervision of such activities are needed, and teacher training for such work should be provided.

LEGISLATIVE PROVISIONS

Legislative provisions on this subject should include the following points:

(1) A clear and comprehensive statement of the purpose of the law and the objects of physical education.

(2) Mandatory provision for all of the items mentioned under "scope" save where (as for medical inspection) this subject may have been covered in previous legislation.

(3) Minimum time requirement to be devoted to physical education.

(4) Provision of administrative machinery in the State department of education sufficient for the effective administration of the law. This provision should be broad and flexible. Two things are essential:

(a) State direction and supervision. A good plan is to have a State director of physical education, with the rank of deputy or assistant State superintendent or health supervisor. His powers and duties should not be narrowly defined.

(b) Sufficient financial resources to insure the effective administration of this office, either by specific appropriation or by authorizing the State department to make adequate provision for this purpose out of general school funds.

(5) There should be a carefully drawn provision authorizing and requiring the employment of supervisors and special teachers under specified conditions and in harmony with the administrative organization of the State.

(6) Provision requiring the State department of education to fix qualifications of supervisors and special teachers and to issue special licenses for the same.

(7) Provision for adequate physical education in the preparation of all teachers, both for the secondary and the elementary school. The essential requirements of this part of the teacher's education should be prescribed by the State authorities.

(8) Provision requiring that pupils be graded in physical education, as in other school subjects and exercises, and that satisfactory progress in physical education be a condition to promotion and graduation.

(9) Coordination of work included in the scope of physical education as here defined, which may have already been provided for by previous legislation, such as military drill or medical inspection, and amendment of such legislation as seems desirable for such coordination.

Chapter VI

SCHOOL GROUNDS AND BUILDINGS¹⁸

Increased knowledge of the effects which the selection of a school site, arrangement of rooms, sanitation, ventilation, heating, and general hygiene of a school building have on the health and school progress of children has practically revolutionized our ideals in regard to building and equipping schoolhouses. Country children have apparently profited less from this knowledge than those in urban communities. This is due in part to lack of knowledge and general indifference in rural communities, but is also due in large part to the financial aspect of the question. When large buildings are contemplated, trained specialists in school architecture are employed and modern ideals are embodied in the school building which results. Rural communities building small schoolhouses which represent small sums of money do not employ the services of such specialists. Local contractors, builders, and school trustees are often not familiar with modern standards for school buildings. Consequently, small school buildings in rural communities continue to be built without regard to appearance or to the demands of modern methods of teaching or general hygienic considerations.

It is also true that we are beginning to realize that public-school grounds, well located and well kept, with beautiful and appropriate buildings, are a striking evidence of the intelligence of the community and its interest in education. A good school is an asset and pays good dividends to any community. Better school conditions invariably mean a better school and better community spirit. Generally, a beautiful and convenient school building costs no more than an unsightly one. The difference is in wise and careful planning.

State laws and State departments of education, through the authority given them under special or general statutes, are making concerted efforts to promote better standards for school buildings. In some States this is done through statutory provision to the effect that all plans for school buildings must be inspected by State officials, usually connected either with the State department of education or the State board of health. In others, State appropriations are made for building purposes, sometimes apportioned to districts

¹⁸ See U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bulletins, 1910, No. 5; 1914, No. 12; 1922, No. 23.

whose financial condition is such as to make the provision of good buildings a hardship to the community. Sometimes money is loaned to school districts at a low rate of interest. Other States aim to promote good buildings through a plan commonly called standardizations of school buildings. Under this plan school buildings meeting certain prescribed requirements may receive State aid or a plate or other mark of distinction.

The experience of the majority of States is that suitable, safe, and sanitary buildings are best assured when there are State laws or regulations, and inspection by State authorities sufficient to give at least general supervision to the matter of the erection of school buildings. A study of school buildings in almost any section of the country at the present time would show many new, as well as old buildings, unsightly, poorly arranged for school purposes, and injurious to the health of children because of improper ventilation, poor lighting, and insanitary conditions. Still others are exceedingly dangerous as fire risks. Scarcely a year passes without loss of life of school children from fires which might have been prevented by buildings with properly arranged exits and fire escapes.

All States now have some regulations governing schoolhouse construction. Much of this legislation has been enacted in the past decade. At least three-fourths of the States have laws on the sanitary features of the building. Many States now require that all plans for schoolhouses be submitted to the State board of health or the State architect or the State board or department of education before public funds can be used in proceeding with the building. Sometimes two or more of the agents mentioned cooperate in the approval of building plans. More and more State departments of education are adding a school architect for whole or half time to their staff. These architects not only approve plans submitted but prepare for the State department plans and specifications for new buildings which may be secured without cost by school districts about to erect buildings. A number of States keep building inspectors in the field constantly to assist in improving old buildings and to see that regulations are followed in the erection of new ones.

Chapter VII

TEACHING STAFF

All States are concerned with providing conditions and regulating qualifications designed to insure, so far as humanly possible, the employment and retention of an adequately prepared teaching staff. Three important considerations enter into the question with which State legislatures are directly concerned and the efficacy of provisions concerning which they are responsible: (1) Certification laws which insure that only qualified applicants receive licenses to teach in any (even the smallest or poorest) school. This means that the minimum qualifications for the lowest grade of certificate should be adequate to insure a good standard of academic and professional qualifications on the part of the candidate. (2) Salaries such as are commensurate with the qualifications exacted for certification. This involves the passage of a minimum salary law based on qualifications. (3) Facilities for training teachers furnished by the State, adequate in the sense of supplying a sufficient number of teachers and efficient in the quality of training given, to supply different types of schools.

Reasonable standards for teachers.—The generally accepted standards of requirements for teachers in the United States are a general education equivalent to graduation from a standard four-year high school, followed by two years of special teacher training in a college department of education, a teachers' college, or a normal school. The two-year professional course should include, besides advanced academic courses, special intensive professional courses, including psychology, principles of education, teaching methods, and the like, as well as ample opportunity for observation in model schools and practice teaching under supervision.

The teaching force of the United States as a whole is below this standard. City systems generally have better trained teachers than the country schools. The average is well up to the standard stated above. Teachers in rural schools average below this standard. In many States numbers of teachers are employed who have not completed a high-school course and have had no professional training. This situation usually is found when certification laws, teachers' salaries, and training facilities are inadequate or insufficient.

A legislative program designed to secure a high-grade teaching staff.—Adequate legislation providing a comprehensive plan similar

to that outlined below will assist in providing the State with a high-grade professional teaching staff:

1. Improve teaching conditions by—

(a) Establishing reasonable minimum salaries for all teachers.

(b) Scaling all teachers' salaries to the grade of certificate held, thus placing a premium on special preparation.

2. Require higher teaching qualifications by—

(a) Increasing gradually the entrance requirements of the State normal schools and lengthening their study courses.

(b) Discontinuing the issue of certificates on examination as soon as the normal schools and other teacher-training institutions have become fully equipped to supply all the professional teachers required.

(c) Placing the minimum requirement for permission to teach at graduation from an accredited four-year high school, or its equivalent, and in addition two years' professional study acquired at a professional school for teachers. The standard to be reached gradually, becoming effective after ample time (one to five years) is given for all teachers in the service to attain these requirements.

3. Increase the supply of professional teachers by—

(a) Granting State bonuses to teachers as rewards for long service in a single school community and to highly efficient teachers continuing service in small rural schools.

(b) Establishing a retirement fund for teachers.

4. Make ample provision for training teachers for all types of schools, including rural schools in numbers large enough to fill annual replacements. Numbers trained for different kinds of positions should be proportionate to needs of the schools based on a careful survey of the situation.

Facilities may be furnished by the establishment of new or the enlargement of existing institutions.

Chapter VIII

CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS

All of the States assume very definite responsibility for the qualifications of persons licensed to teach within the State. In no State can teachers draw salaries from public school funds unless they hold a legal teaching license or certificate. In all States there are established certain minimum requirements or prerequisites for teaching certificates and established standards or grades of certificates based on academic or professional qualifications and experience in teaching.

The power of certifying teachers was vested in local authorities first in practically all States. It has, however, gradually become more and more centralized. At present it is centered in county and State authorities, cities under certain conditions or of a certain size being exempted in most States, and two States in New England being excepted. The centralization has come about gradually, more and more authority in regard to certification being placed in the hands of the State department of education. At the present time the certificating authority is placed in the department of education wholly or sufficiently to give the department large authority in all but about 13 States.

The legislatures of the several States generally provide for the certificating of teachers either (1) by providing in the statutes for certain definite types of certificates and setting forth the qualifications demanded for each, fixing the authority and power to grant them, regulations concerning term, validity, etc.; or (2) by the assignment by statute of the authority to formulate rules and regulations for certification to State officers, without making specific provision for details in the law itself. Such authority is generally assigned to the State board of education or the State department of education. City boards are granted this liberty in nearly all States either directly or indirectly. In some States a combination of these two methods is followed, certain general provisions being set forth in the statutes, and designated authorities given considerable liberty in fixing details and interpreting the intent of the law. These details and regulations are then set forth in official regulations.

Agencies which issue certificates.—Teaching certificates are issued by State, county, and local (town, district, or city) authorities.

Omitting cities, the following are the systems of administrative organization for issuing certificates:

1. *State systems*, in which all certificates are issued by State authorities, and the State retains control over the whole matter of teacher certification.
2. *State-controlled systems*, in which State, county, and district authorities may issue certificates, but the authority governing the issue (including giving questions and examining papers) is retained by the State officials. Local authorities merely issue certificates.
3. *Semi-State systems*, in which States exercise some but not complete control. The State department makes the regulations and gives the questions for examination, but local authorities examine the papers and issue certificates.
4. *State-county systems*, in which the State, county, city, and certain district authorities all issue *some* certificates and govern all or important regulations (formulating questions, for example) under which they are granted.
5. *State-local systems*, as in some of the New England States, in which complete power of certification is given to the township school committees as well as to the State department.

There is a growing tendency to centralize full certificating authority in the State department of education. In 35 States State authorities now exercise entire control. There are seven additional States in which the State retains authority to give questions and make regulations concerning examinations, but permits county authorities to issue certificates and correct papers. This arrangement does not result in a uniform State system, since counties may have different standards for grading papers. Uniformity is obtained only when State authorities exercise full control. At present, in only two States are local systems (cities excepted) permitted to issue teaching certificates, and in two States county authorities are still free to give certificates entirely on their own initiative. The remaining States have all adopted or are working toward State uniformity.

Methods of securing certificates.—There are two methods of securing certificates recognized in all States, one by examination under statutory regulations established by State and county authorities, the other on the basis of credentials showing academic and professional training secured at approved institutions. The examination method, while still the most common for low-grade certificates, is gradually being replaced by that of professional preparation given in recognized institutions. In all States recognition for certification is given to graduates of approved normal schools and colleges having required credits as set forth in law or by State regulations. Certificates secured in this way are sometimes issued by the State department of education and sometimes by the institutions. In 20

States some recognition toward certification or full certificates are given to persons who have completed prescribed courses in normal training classes in or connected with secondary schools.

There is a marked tendency to eliminate the examination method of issuing certificates. This is being done by gradually increasing the qualifications required over a period of years and setting forth a definite prerequisite of academic and professional training effective at a stated time, usually from two to five years in advance of the time at which the law is passed. This serves to give ample notice to prospective teachers that the given amount of preparation must be made by the date set or certificates will not be forthcoming. Laws setting up requirements which demand gradually increasing qualifications are usually accompanied by minimum salary laws.

Certificates granted on graduation from, or courses taken in, educational institutions of secondary or higher grade or by means of examination in prescribed subjects may be roughly classified as follows: (1) Those based on graduation from a standard college or university, generally including professional courses. (2) Those based primarily on graduation from a two-year course of college grade generally given in normal schools and teachers colleges. (3) Those based on graduation from a four-year high school, including professional courses given in connection with the regular work or given in addition to a prescribed four-year high-school course. (4) Those based primarily on scholarship attainments, as shown by examination. (5) Certain combinations of the above. A combination of this kind commonly established is that of setting up a minimum amount of academic and professional training (probably graduation from a four-year high school with 6 to 12 weeks of professional training), and in addition examination in certain prescribed subjects.

A study of scholarship requirements set forth in the statutes and regulations of the different States for teaching certificates shows a strong tendency toward exacting higher scholarship requirements. Graduation from a course two years above the high school is about the accepted standard for teachers of elementary grades, and completion of a four-year college course the standard for high-school teachers. Examinations, though quite inadequate, apparently aim to exact qualifications about equivalent to these. The various prerequisites for entrance to examinations which States are setting are intended to assure the minimum amount of scholarship considered necessary for teachers before even the lowest grade certificate is granted. Such prerequisites are particularly essential in States in which the system is decentralized, terms are short, and salaries low, in order to insure that all children will be under the direction of reasonably qualified teachers.

Chapter IX

SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS¹⁹

Textbooks play an important part in the elementary and secondary schools of the United States. In almost all subjects teachers and pupils depend on them not only for facts but for order of presentation. The adoption of textbooks for use in any school or system of schools is, therefore, important in determining courses of study and methods practiced in those schools not carefully supervised.

State uniformity.—The importance of the selection of textbooks has been recognized by legislative action regulating it in some degree in all the States. In some States a uniform list has been adopted for the whole State. In others there is uniformity through county adoptions. In others the selection of texts rests with the local school unit. Two States, California and Kansas, print textbooks. Four States lend them to school districts, which in turn lend them to pupils, retaining them as State property. At the present time 26 States have state-wide uniform systems of adoption, 5 have county adoption, while in the remaining 17 the textbooks are selected by the local school unit. Of the States having state-wide uniformity, 11 provide for selection of textbooks by the State boards of education and the others by special textbook commissions usually appointed by the governor. The tendency to charge the State board of education with the function of selecting textbooks seems to be growing in favor. Selection should be made by or with the advice of professionally trained persons including teachers, supervisors, and superintendents and recommendations made solely on the merits of the books without regard to price or other consideration. (Table 13 sets forth certain facts concerning textbooks.)

*Free textbooks.*²⁰—Philadelphia was probably the first city to provide free textbooks for children attending its public schools, and Massachusetts the first State to pass a state-wide mandatory free textbook law. At present 19 States and the District of Columbia supply elementary school texts without cost. In 15 of these States the law for free textbooks is applied to secondary schools also. In 22 other States local school districts may supply textbooks.²¹ In practically all States books are furnished free to indigent children.

Free textbooks are furnished in a number of States having permissive laws on the subject. Practically all cities of any size in these States, as well as a number of other districts, even small districts,

¹⁹ See U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bulletins, 1915, No. 38, and 1923, No. 50.

²⁰ See U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bul., 1923, No. 50.

²¹ Table 14.

furnish free textbooks. A study recently made in the Bureau of Education indicates that in the following States the majority of cities and many rural districts furnish free texts: New York, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, Washington, Colorado, Idaho, North Dakota, Wisconsin, and Connecticut.²²

An inquiry recently made concerning the success of the plan of supplying free textbooks indicates that the consensus of opinion among teachers, superintendents, and school authorities is in favor of the system. Free textbooks apparently give greater opportunity to all classes of pupils, cost less than when purchased by the individual, and aid teachers in meeting the requirements of the course of study.

There is a growing feeling that, when State uniformity is provided, the list of books approved should make provision for a liberal supplementary list, permitting local authorities to exercise a good deal of freedom of choice. Additional information concerning free textbooks is set forth in Tables 13 and 14.

Arguments advanced in favor of free textbooks are as follows:

1. Poor children, whose parents are unable to purchase books, or are unable to do so without great sacrifice, may attend school as well equipped in this respect as the richer children.
2. Uniformity of textbooks in each school administrative district is secured.
3. Textbooks may be changed with little inconvenience whenever changes are desirable.
4. Additional textbooks and supplementary books may be supplied.
5. School work is not delayed at the beginning of the school year while parents obtain books for their children.

Arguments against free textbooks and in favor of the pupils purchasing their own books are as follows:

1. Parents and pupils are made to realize that they can not become wholly dependent on the State, but must continue to assume some of the responsibilities of education.
2. On account of the cost, increased school taxes would be necessary or the amount available for salaries and other expenses would be decreased.
3. Children should not be required to use books soiled by other children, as they are objectionable to the majority of children and parents both for esthetic and sanitary reasons.
4. By purchasing textbooks home libraries may be built up.
5. Books furnished free are not cared for as are those owned by the pupils.

On the other hand, because the free textbooks are public property intrusted to the pupils, to be paid for if damaged or lost, and frequently inspected by the teachers, it is claimed that they are as well or better cared for. The care the books receive depends entirely upon the way in which the system is managed.

TABLE 13.—*Uniform textbooks.—Territory to which laws are applicable*

State	State	County	Town- ship and district	State	State	County	Town- ship and district
Alabama				Nebraska			
Arizona	X			Nevada	X		X
Arkansas	X			New Hampshire			
California	X			New Jersey			X
Colorado			X	New Mexico	X		X
Connecticut				New York			X
Delaware	X			North Carolina	X		
Dist. Columbia	X			North Dakota			
Florida				Ohio			X
Georgia	X			Oklahoma	X		
Idaho	X			Oregon			
Illinois			X	Pennsylvania			
Indiana	X			Rhode Island			X
Iowa			X	South Carolina	X		
Kansas	X			South Dakota			
Kentucky	X			Tennessee	X		
Louisiana	X			Texas	X		
Maine			X	Utah			
Maryland		X		Vermont			
Massachusetts			X	Virginia	X		X
Michigan			X	Washington			
Minnesota			X	West Virginia	X		
Mississippi	X			Wisconsin		X	
Missouri		X		Wyoming		X	
Montana	X						

TABLE 14.—*Free textbook laws*

State	Law mandatory			No laws	State	Law mandatory			No laws
	For element- ary	For second- ary	Law permis- sive			For element- ary	For second- ary	Law permis- sive	
Alabama					Nevada	X	X		
Arizona	X	X	X		New Hampshire	X	X		
Arkansas			X		New Jersey	X	X		
California	X	X			New Mexico				X
Colorado			X		New York				
Connecticut			X		North Carolina				
Delaware	X	X	X		North Dakota				
Dist. Columbia	X				Ohio				
Florida			X		Oklahoma	X			
Georgia			X		Oregon				
Idaho			X		Pennsylvania	X	X		
Illinois			X		Rhode Island	X	X		
Indiana			X		South Carolina				X
Iowa			X		South Dakota				
Kansas			X		Tennessee	X	X		
Kentucky			X		Texas	X			
Louisiana			X		Utah	X			
Maine	X	X	X		Vermont	X			
Maryland	X	X			Virginia				
Massachusetts	X	X	X		Washington				
Michigan			X		West Virginia				
Minnesota			X		Wisconsin				
Mississippi			X		Wyoming	X	X		
Missouri			X						
Montana	X	X	X						
Nebraska	X	X							
					Total	20	15	22	7

* Two counties.

* Supplementary readers free.